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The Eleventh Annual Meeting

THE eleventh regular annual meeting of the American Council on Education was held in the National Research Council Building, Washington, D. C., May 4–5, 1928. The reports of the Executive Committee and the officers printed herewith portray the progress made by the Council during the past year.

The meeting was significant because of its discussion of pending problems for the purpose of mapping future activities. From this point of view, the Chairman's Address on "Mechanical Power and Its Influence on Education in America" was timely and important. The rapid increase in mechanical power from a half horse-power per citizen in 1870 up to over seven horse power per citizen in 1926 presents a very real challenge to education. While this vast power increases the comforts of life, it also increases the dangers of serious misuse. The full text is printed in the following pages.

The second important topic was the standards of accrediting high schools and colleges. The matter was forcibly presented at the North Central Association meeting in March by Dr. C. H. Judd in a paper that was printed in the April number of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Chancellor S. P. Capen continued the discussion at the annual meeting. Not only are we outgrowing the very useful but rather mechanical standards approved by this Council in 1924, but the situation is confused by the rapid organization of Junior Colleges and the six-year elementary school. The structure of our system is in process of alteration, raising the definite question, What is and what ought to be the secondary education in the United States?

This question is of sufficient importance to endeavor to secure an adequate Federal appropriation to enable the Bureau of Education to make a thorough national study of the secondary school field. Dr. Capen endorsed the movement started by the North Central Association to seek such

an appropriation. The matter had already been presented to the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives by Dr. Judd and other representatives of the accrediting agencies in connection with the Hearings on the Education Bill on April 25–26. The Executive Committee of the Council had already endorsed this project and is cooperating in its realization.

As an illustration of the manner in which the Bureau of Education now conducts such surveys, Dr. A. J. Klein described the organization and operation of the study of the Land Grant Colleges which is now being made under a similar special Federal appropriation. The invitation to make the study came from the Association of Land Grant Colleges. The Bureau of Education accepted this invitation and requested a special appropriation from Congress to cover its expense. As soon as this was granted, Dr. Klein visited personally forty of the Land Grant Colleges and discussed the nature and content of the survey with many administrative officers and members of the faculties. The suggestions received were tabulated and classified into about twenty major lines of activity that ran through all of the institutions.

Having determined these major headings of the survey, the institutions were invited to nominate individuals who were particularly competent to take charge of each section of the survey. On the basis of these nominations, small technical advisory committees were formed and these developed the detailed questions that the study should seek to answer. These questionnaires were then criticised in detail by members of the advisory committees who were brought to Washington for that purpose. When the questions were thus agreed to, each member of the committees was assigned to study a certain number of institutions within his immediate territory. In this way, the outline of the study was developed by experts in their respective fields and the work of observation and collection of data was decentralized in a most effective manner. In addition to these technical advisory committees, there is a national advisory committee

to advise concerning policies of the survey as a whole and to review the report before its publication. Each Land Grant College also has a local survey committee of its own which cooperates with the technical advisory committees in securing at each institution the desired data. This local committee also is guided to study the local situation from a national point of view because of its relation to the survey as a whole. If a national study of secondary education were undertaken, it would be organized on similar lines of decentralized responsibility with centralized cooperation.

In the discussion following this report, the importance of stimulating the Federal Government to greater activities as a research and information center in education was emphasized. It was pointed out that there are already in operation some $18,000,000 of Federal subsidies to the states on the 50-50 principle for support of vocational education. Bills are pending increasing this by about $6,000,000 per year. Yet this form of Federal grant carries with it real control of education in the states, while increased support of research and information service cannot possibly do so. The question was also raised whether it is not wise national policy to insist that such far-reaching surveys of American education be made under public control.

As a final chapter in this discussion of the national challenge to education, Dr. John H. MacCracken presented the report of the Committee on Federal Legislation. He told of the hearings on the Education Bill that have just been completed by the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives. Dr. MacCracken's report will appear in full in the October number of the RECORD.

At the close of the morning session, the Chairman, Dr. Walter Dill Scott, appointed, as a nominating committee, President Parke R. Kolbe, the Right Reverend Edward A. Pace, and Commissioner A. B. Meredith of Connecticut.

At the afternoon session, Dr. R. H. Fife presented the final report of the Committee on the Modern Foreign Language Study. The work of this committee is drawing to a close. Its reports are in press and should be issued by fall.

The third major topic of the meeting, Personnel Methods, was introduced by Dr. D. A. Robertson in a report of progress of the work of the Committee on Personnel Methods. This committee has already developed tentative personal record cards, achievement tests and personality rating scales. These are all ready for experimental tryout next fall. A full description of them is given in the accompanying Supplement of the Educational Record. Additional copies of this may be secured from the office of the Council. So far as personnel methods of handling students are concerned, significant progress has been made.

Discussion of the Enlistment and Training of College Teachers was introduced by Dean O. E. Randall of Brown University. He described the activities of the Association of American Colleges and the appointment of a central committee of the Council in accordance with the vote of the Council at the last annual meeting. This central committee has prepared a form for recording the characteristic activities of teachers and is inviting individual institutions to cooperate in discussing this form, which was printed in the April number of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Attention of the members of the Council is again called to this invitation and to the importance of cooperation in this fundamental enterprise.

The subject of industrial cooperation was introduced by Gen. R. I. Rees of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. He described some of the difficulties met with by industrial firms in finding suitable candidates for employment among college graduates. The attitude of the colleges in this matter has changed in the past five years, in that college authorities take much more responsibility for proper placement of their graduates. This is leading to more active effort on the part of colleges to discover what are the requirements of industry and to help classify students with reference to occupational bents as an aid to industry in finding the right men for its work. General Rees commended the colleges on their cordial assistance in organizing interviews for industrial representatives and recognized the difficulties

which the institution faces when a large number of industrial representatives desire to interview the men of the senior class. In selecting men, the Telephone Company places emphasis on scholarship, extra curriculum activities and previous earnings of the students. Ratings are also made by the industrial representatives on personality, reliability, and mental capacity. These three are considered most significant. It was, however, desirable that some means be devised for discovering the underlying motives of a young man's life. The personnel methods now being developed offer hope for the achievement of this end.

Mr. Samuel S. Board of the Yale Placement Bureau stated that two hundred business firms sent representatives to Yale to interview the senior class last year. Though the practical difficulty of arranging such interviews was great, the greater objection was that many of the leading students received legitimate offers from a large number of firms. This produces an unfortunate state of mind in the graduate and tends to place the college men only in large companies. Better organization of this entire phase of industrial relations is seriously needed.

Progress on the fourth major project, industrial cooperation, was reported by Dean C. E. Hewitt. Already descriptions of about 4,000 different jobs have been sent the Council by twenty-eight different industrial organizations. Most of these are in the pattern job specification form so that they are comparable with each other. This is a sufficiently wide variety to warrant analysis to discover the common elements of practice and procedure needed for educational guidance. The significance of institutional membership in the Council is not yet clear to business organizations. Some express fear that colleges, if given job specifications, will attempt to train specialists for industry. Others still seem to regard college men as dreamers who cannot yet talk in terms that industry understands. The Executive Committee considers it wise not to hurry business into membership until it has grasped the real significance of membership so that the new relationship will be mutually beneficial in a thoroughly sound way.

Events of the past year show that some sort of cooperative organization between business and education will be established in the near future. Conditions in business are changing rapidly, and each year sees a greater need in industrial management for young men capable of the disinterested imaginative thinking which it is the chief function of the university to develop. Business men have known for some years that college graduates have very erroneous conceptions of how business is operated and what its fundamental economic procedures are. The efforts made by Public Utilities companies to correct these shortcomings by direct action on the universities themselves has not been approved by the Federal Trade Commission, because the methods used seem to smack of propaganda. Yet the situation demands that schools be reliably informed in a thoroughly scientific spirit concerning present business practice. This is one of the chief objectives of the Council's plan of cooperation with industry and the professions. It aims to secure reliable records of usage of the world's work, but insists that educators alone be responsible for the manner in which that information is used for educational purposes. The further development of this project is the most fundamental enterprise in which the Council is now engaged.

Delegates of nineteen constituent members, and representatives of twenty-six institutional members were in attendance, besides a number of guests.

The Director's budget was approved as printed on page 158. The proposed amendment to the constitution, reducing the minimum dues for institutional members other than educational institutions from $500 to $200, was also approved. President Frederick B. Robinson was elected Chairman for the coming year, and Messrs. C. H. Judd and Guy E. Snavely were elected members of the Executive Committee for a three-year term. The full list of officers and members is given on pages 179 and 183.

The Rapid Development of Mechanical Power and its Influence on Education in America[1]

Chairman's Address, May 5, 1928

THE development of mechanical power has been preceded by that of slave and animal power. In prehistoric times, human slaves, work animals and mechanical power were probably unknown, or at least of but little significance. During recent centuries it is practically impossible to find an illustration of a civilized man existing without slave, animal, or mechanical power. Fiction writers have attempted to depict for us such a situation, and of all these descriptions probably the best is Defoe's "Robinson Crusoe."

According to the narrative, Robinson Crusoe was wrecked on an uninhabited island in the tropics, where he lived a solitary existence for over twenty years, providing with his own hands food, clothing, a home, and protection from enemies. The author decreed that the island should be fertile—many types of fruits and vegetables were indigenous to the soil, game birds were numerous, fish were had in the mountain brooks, edible turtle frequented the shore, and wild goats, easily tamed, were found in abundance. Clothing was required only for protection, and was obtained in the main from goat skins. A home was constructed out of a cave and a roof covered with palm leaves. The necessity of protection from the enemies was reduced to a minimum.

After meanly subsisting as the sole inhabitant of the island for two decades, Robinson Crusoe became the fortunate possessor of a slave whom he called Friday, a young man of extraordinary vigor, of untiring industry and of complete devotion to his master. In certain important activities he proved to be even more skillful than his master, and from this time on for a period of years Robinson Crusoe

[1] This address will appear as a chapter in a volume entitled "New World Series," published by D. Van Nostrand Co.

supplemented the labor of his own hands with that of Friday's, thus utilizing one slave power in the performance of all his tasks. To feed himself and Friday it was necessary to double the size of the grain fields, to increase the size of the flock of goats, and to catch more game; however, the amount of labor required to supply the needs of two was not twice as much as to supply the needs of one, so some surplus provisions were stored up, some surplus time was made available, and some relief was obtained from the incessant toil which for twenty years Robinson Crusoe had been compelled to endure. This story is fiction, but it depicts what one man might accomplish alone in an ideal environment, and what he might accomplish when he possessed one slave.

Such an environment might be ideal, but it does not correspond to the facts as made apparent by even a casual study of history. Man is supposed to have existed one thousand centuries preceding the historic age, but the original environment under which these early peoples of the earth lived was never so favorable as was that of Robinson Crusoe's island. Rarely was there a land that had sufficient fertility to provide adequate food for all, and in no land was there even approximately freedom from enemies, whether we have in mind disease producing germs, venomous snakes and vicious beasts, or, most of all, hostile neighbors. During this prehistoric age it is believed that man made practically no progress in the utilization of power other than that of his own hands.

Since the beginning of historical times there have elapsed some sixty centuries, during the first forty of which four peoples surpassed all others in the extent to which they developed power—the peoples of Babylonia, Egypt, Greece and Rome.

In ancient Babylonia the climate was extraordinarily favorable; the land was fertile, and at certain periods there was relative freedom from enemies. The number of slaves per freeman was probably larger than in any land in any preceding age, but it does not appear that the number of slaves

was even approximately as great as the number of freemen. The people of ancient Babylon made use of oxen, of asses, and possibly of horses to some extent, but they seem to have used camels, elephants, waterwheels, sailboats and other mechanical forces but little, or not at all. The hands of the freemen, supplemented by the work of slaves and of oxen and asses, enabled the people to produce a surplus of the necessities of life, thus releasing some freemen from the drudgery which was common to all other peoples, with the result that many of the freemen thus released developed into priests and men learned in various fields. Thus an advance was made from magic to a crude form of religion, from astrology to a crude form of astronomy, and from a spoken language to a written language which was recorded on clay tablets. The wheel as a burden bearing device was invented, iron tools were fashioned, and weight in silver first appeared as a medium of exchange.

In ancient Egypt the climate was good, the land fertile, and there was relatively immunity from hostile neighbors. The number of slaves became as great per million of population as in Babylonia. The Egyptians used the ox and the ass, even the sheep to tramp the grain into the prepared soil at seeding time; they made use of the sailboat and possibly of the water-wheel. This relatively extensive using of slave, animal, and mechanical power resulted in a surplus of goods and of leisure; so a very large priestly and noble caste was developed by which progress was made in civilization. There was an advance from polytheism to monotheism and from polygamy to monogamy. A new form of written language was produced, based on a real alphabet and recorded, not on clay tablets, but upon papyrus rolled into convenient scrolls. Progress was made in astronomy and in architecture, and here for the first time the plow was drawn by domestic animals and the boat was propelled by a sail.

In ancient Greece the climate was not as favorable, the fertility not as great, and the freedom from hostile neighbors not as assured as in Egypt and Babylonia. There were

apparently more slaves in Greece in proportion to the number of freemen than had been held by any other peoples in any other land, their number at one time probably equaling that of the freemen. Work animals appear to have been less used in Greece than in Egypt or in Babylonia. The force of the wind was, however, utilized more extensively for sailboats than had been the case in Egypt. This greater employment of slaves and of the sailboat resulted in a great surplus in goods and in leisure, and the releasing from drudgery of men of outstanding genius to whom all later generations owe a debt of gratitude. They gave dignity to the human individual; they developed the ideal of the beautiful, the good and the true; they made distinct progress in the development of all the arts and of all the sciences.

In ancient Rome the climate was not, in general, as favorable nor freedom from hostile neighbors as complete as in Greece, Egypt, or Babylon, and slaves were possibly not as numerous as in ancient Greece. However, the slaves, the domestic animals and the mechanical forces were better organized and were more efficiently utilized and, here again, a surplus of goods was produced, thus releasing many individuals from the necessity of drudgery. Although much of the energy of those thus released was used in conquest, and although luxury sapped their vitals, progress was made in law, in government and in other forms of social control.

During the last four thousand years B. C. some nations other than Babylon, Egypt, Greece and Rome may have possessed some slaves, utilized some domestic animals for work, and made some use of wind and water power, but such uses are believed to have been small. So far as we can judge, in all prehistoric times and in the last forty centuries B. C. only four peoples made relatively extensive use of power, and these are the four which made human progress. The nations that failed to develop power failed also to make progress in civilization. I am confining my attention to peoples directly affecting occidental civilization.

In considering the power available for various peoples in various ages it would be convenient to have a common term

that might be used to embrace all such power. As a matter of fact, the term "horse power" is such a term; for all other forms of power are equated in terms of horse power. According to the engineers a horse has power sufficient to raise 33,000 pounds one foot in one minute while twenty-five slaves, including men, women and children, have the power sufficient to accomplish this same task. It is a common custom to rate in terms of horse power all our steam engines, gasoline engines, and all other forms of mechanical power.

This common unit of measurement makes it possible to add together such dissimilar units of power as slaves, horses, and windmills. Each slave is regarded as possessing .04 of a horse power; the average windmill as possessing .5 of a horse power. The sum of power exerted by 25 slaves, 1 horse, and 2 windmills is 3 horse power.

When we estimate the slave power, the animal power, and the mechanical power of peoples we find it most convenient to give the total in terms of horse power.

During the 1,000 centuries preceding 4,000 B. C. there is believed to have been practically no use made of slaves, of work animals, or of mechanical forces for purposes of work. Accordingly, the amount of horse power available to the individual was 0.

From 4,000 B. C. to the age of Christ numerous nations made some use of slave power, less use of animal power, and even a lesser use of mechanical power. At certain periods in Babylon, Egypt, Greece and Rome each freeman may have possessed on an average as much as one human slave which would be the equivalent of .04 of a horse power. In addition to one slave, each freeman may, on the average, have possessed as much as a maximum of .04 of a horse power constituted by the combined power of all the animals and mechanical forces actually available for him. The total of the average of this human slave power, animal power and mechanical power is .08 of a horse power. Since at least half of the power was slave power, it is probably better to express it not as .08 of a horse power, but in the equivalent term of 2 slave power.

At the peak of prosperity in Babylon, Egypt, Greece and Rome the average freeman possessed power possibly the equivalent of 2 slaves available for his use. During the first eighteen centuries of the Christian Era the utilization of power increased in many of the nations of the world, but most of all in Europe. By the middle of the nineteenth century this utilization of power had so increased in the United States that it found a place in our census of 1869. The entire human slave power had been eliminated by the Civil War. According to this census the animal power was slightly in excess of the mechanical power. The number of horses, including mules, assess, and oxen, was approximately 10,000,000. The power of all water-wheels, steam engines and other types of mechanical power was less than 10,000,000 horse power. This total of approximately 20,000,000 horse power was distributed among the 40,000,000 of the population. On the average, therefore, every man, woman and child in the United States possessed .5 of one horse power or the equivalent of 12 slaves.

No ancient peoples had developed more than the equivalent of 2 slaves per freeman. The people of the United States had by 1869 developed the equivalent of 12 slaves for the use of each individual.

The increase in power had only just begun in 1869. The rate of increase is accelerating, so that the total of available or installed power is today greater than any of us realize. A tabulation of the potential installed power in the United States based on the best available data is shown on opposite page.

The accumulation of power is a phenomenon peculiarly American as it is much greater here than in any other nation. The amount of power accumulated by the people of England is, per inhabitant, only one-third as great as it is in America. In Germany it is less than in England. In France it is less than in Germany. In all other nations it is still less. In western Asia, in central Africa and in certain other lands, there is practically no accumulation of power.

Not only has America accumulated 175 slave power per

Kind of power	*No. of units*	*Total H. P.*	*Average slave power per American*
Horses and Mules	21,000,000	21,000,000	4.37
Windmills	1,000,000	500,000	.10
Water Power		3,700,000	.77
Vessels of U. S. Navy	776	10,495,419	2.18
Power Used in Mines	21,280	6,723,788	1.46
Power Used in Mfg. Plants		35,773,000	7.45
Power in Central Stations		32,000,000	6.66
Stationary Engines on Farms	2,500,000	10,000,000	2.08
Tractors on Farms	568,000	13,232,000	2.75
Electric Power Plants on Farms	300,000	900,000	.19
Locomotives	70,000	149,310,000	31.10
Automobiles	22,000,000	550,000,000	114.58
Miscellaneous:			
4,936 other vessels of the U. S. Merchant Marine; numerous additional boats; 350,000,000 lbs. dynamite; 130,000,000 lbs. "B" blasting powder; 16,935,918 telephones; telegraph; radio broadcasting stations and receiving sets; stationary engines not on farms; *rough estimate.*		10,000,000	2.08
Total		843,634,207	175.77
Average H. P. per American			7.03
Average Slave Power per American			175.77

inhabitant, which is three times that of any other people, but the rate of accumulating this power is increasing faster in America than in any other land. The American who today possesses the equivalent of 175 slave power will probably possess double that amount in a few years. He is also constantly improving the methods, the conditions and the implements for availing himself of this power.

According to our census report of 1869, over 50 per cent of our power was animal and less than 50 per cent of it mechanical, but at the present time it is approximately 2½ per cent animal power and 97½ per cent mechanical power.

This power in America is distributed in a democratic manner. In ancient times power was concentrated in the hands of the few, and was used primarily for the benefit

of the few. One ruler of Egypt used the labor of 100,000 slaves for twenty years in building a pyramid. The purpose of the pyramid was to provide an appropriate burial place for himself. In America power is possessed by the many and used for the benefit of all. Henry Ford has possessed more power than any other American, but unfortunately for many would-be customers he is frequently sold out. Next to the automobile, the steam locomotive is the greatest source of power. But the locomotive is by law made into a "common carrier." The third greatest source of power is that used in manufacturing plants, but here it is used to remove drudgery from our industrial workers. The fourth greatest source of power is the central station, but the power here generated is used for such altruistic purposes as transporting the poor and illuminating their homes.

It can in general be said that power applied any place in America benefits every citizen of the land; that every tractor used on a farm increases the surplus of our food supply; that every truck helps in the distribution of commodities; that every additional unit of power used in a manufacturing plant improves the quality and reduces the price of merchandise; that every passenger train and every pleasure car broadens the vision and increases the solidarity of the American people.

Mechanical power is a mysterious force that cannot be visualized and therefore cannot readily be appreciated. Slave power and animal power are not so mysterious, can be readily visualized, and can, therefore, be more readily appreciated. If we should imagine that the seven horse power per inhabitant was all in terms of human slaves and of work horses it might be equated by 125 slaves and 2 horses for each man, woman and child in America.

We can readily imagine a situation in which the school boy has at his disposal and at his service 125 human slaves and 2 horses. We can imagine a situation in which the boy has distributed this available power as follows:

One horse and 75 slaves might be utilized to provide food,

clothing, shelter, and protection. The remaining 50 slaves might be used as pedagogues and the one additional horse might be at their disposal. In ancient times a distinguished child may have had one or even two or three pedagogues, but each modern child might have fifty, each a specialist in some phase of child development.

We can readily imagine a situation in which an industrial worker has at his disposal 125 slaves and 2 horses. One horse and 75 slaves might be used to provide food, clothing, housing, protection, entertainment, and all cultural and other needs. One horse and 50 slaves might be set aside for cooperation at his industrial task. In transporting and lifting any heavy object he would add to the strength of his own hands the strength of one horse and 50 slaves. In welding metals or in any industrial activity in which blows are to be struck, a great hammer might be raised by the horse or by the 50 slaves. In work at the anvil, to his blow might be added the blow of each of the 50 slaves. In any task in industry that he might pursue his working capacity would be increased 25 fold by the work of the horse, and would be increased 50 fold by the use of the slaves.

We can readily imagine a situation in which a criminal has at his disposal 125 slaves and 2 horses. He might utilize one horse and 75 slaves to provide all the customary requirements of life. He could then hold his one horse and 50 slaves in reserve to assist him in his criminal activities. The horse might provide for him speed in arriving at the place where a theft was to be attempted, and in providing for his "get-away." The slaves might be used a spies, as confederates, as blinds, and in various other ways that experience might prove as effective in making crime profitable and safe.

We can readily imagine a situation in which a philanthropist has at his disposal 125 slaves and two horses. He might utilize one horse and 75 slaves to provide the customary requirements of life. He could then hold his one horse and 50 slaves in reserve to assist him in his philanthropy. The

horse might provide transportation for delivering his benefactions and to relieve the poor of some of their many burdens. The slaves might keep him informed concerning the merits of appeals for bequests, for investigating the results of benefactions already made, and for any other purposes that might increase his service to his fellow men.

We can readily see that a child, an industrial worker, a criminal, a philanthropist, and any other individual would be profoundly affected if there were available for each 125 human slaves and two horses. We cannot readily see that they are equally affected by the possession of great sources of mechanical power. It is difficult to realize the effect such a concentration of mechanical power has had on education. In an attempt to realize this effect, help may be had from a consideration of the effects this power has had on such fundamental human institutions and conceptions as economics, industry, morals and religion.

The democratic distribution of power is producing striking *economic* changes in the American people.

The possession of power and the acquisition of wealth go hand in hand. Historically the average man possessed but little power and accumulated but little surplus of this world's goods. An appreciable proportion of the human race lacked even the necessities during unfavorable seasons. There was a lack of nourishing food, of warm clothing, and of decent living quarters. Poverty was general, and such a poem as "Over the Hill to the Poor House" had a vivid meaning to our ancestors of even a generation ago. The average citizen of America today possesses great power and shares in the benefits of much more. He not only has unprecedented wealth but he has even more credit. He buys appetizing food and fine raiment. He lives in quarters that contain luxuries unknown to the aristocrats of former ages. He possesses a surplus of this world's goods and may therefore be spoken of as a rich man. He is possessed of all the opportunities, and all the responsibilities, of all the ambitions and all the temptations of the rich.

The accumulation of power, and particularly of mechan-

ical power, is resulting also in profound *industrial* changes in our people.

We are told that the coming of the machine has destroyed the dignity of labor; that the monotony of tending a machine deadens the interest and the initiative of the workers. Such an interpretation is unwarranted. The machine relieves the worker of the monotony of toil. It enables the machine tender to accomplish in eight hours what would otherwise necessitate the drudgery of many workers from ten to fifteen hours a day. The machine converts many workers from drudges into artisans, and converts a few from drudges into artists. The gnarled hand, the halting gait, and the stooped shoulders have ceased to be a common characteristic of the industrial worker. The machine has reduced the hours of daily toil, has definitely added dignity to labor, and has immeasurably improved the status of the working man.

The great accumulation and democratic distribution of power is accompanied also by profound *moral* changes.

The lack of power encourages a double standard of morality—one standard for our treatment of the home folk and quite another standard for our treatment of foreign folk. Power has given us such improved forms of transportation and communication that this double standard is waning. Provincialism under the guise of patriotism is dying hard, but world-mindedness is developing, and the single standard of morality is winning converts.

The accumulation and democratic distribution of power force us to consider as immoral certain customs that were universally approved where there was no great accumulation of power, or where it was not democratically distributed. Among such customs are polygamy, slavery, and the consumption of intoxicating beverages.

Polygamy has been common where there was a relatively great accumulation of power in the hands of a few. It was difficult for a maiden to see that she was immoral if she chose to be the second wife of a lord rather than the only wife of a serf. It was difficult for the lord to see that he was immoral if he shared his abundance with a second wife and did not

permit her, as the wife of a serf, to endure a life of drudgery. A democratic distribution of power seems to be necessary to enable us to consider polygamy as immoral.

Slavery was common, and approved in all lands in which it was regarded as necessary to the welfare of the freemen. In prehistoric times the conquered were put to death. In early historic times the conquered were frequently killed, but occasionally they were kept alive as were the conquered animals. It was found that these conquered enemies could be used for certain types of menial work, and hence they were preserved and used as slaves. The conqueror considered only two alternatives—either to kill or to enslave. It was difficult for the conqueror to see that his most generous alternative was immoral. Those who enslaved and those who used slaves never regarded slavery as an immoral institution until after there was made available to them a more effective form of power. The democratic distribution of great power has removed the occasion for perverted vision, and today for the first time the rising generation in America considers slavery as an immoral custom.

The consumption of intoxicating beverages is as old as polygamy and slavery and has been even more universally approved. In some lands drinking was an act of worship. Where poverty and misery is great, funds and time are not available for securing and for consuming great quantities of liquor, even though the desire to escape the realities of life furnish a good excuse. Furthermore, in such a land the intoxicated man is not likely to do much damage. In a land in which there is great power and great wealth, drinking might become excessive. In such a land the intoxicated man may wreck a train or commit injury without limit to his fellow men. As might have been foreseen, the first national prohibition regulation was put into effect by the railroads. They were the part of our environment in which there was the first great accumulation of power. It takes a sober man to run a high-powered machine. Intoxicating liquor became a greater potential menace in America than in any other land, and gradually became considered not

merely as an economic and health problem, but also as a moral problem.

The accumulation and the democratic distribution of power is also changing the *religious* ideals of the American people and the fundamental motives to which they respond.

A people without power is inclined to conceive God as a great potentate who demands humility, patient endurance and sacrifices. For them the most impelling motive to action is the avoidance of pain. Their greatest concern is to escape such evils as hunger in this life and eternal punishment in the life to come. A people possessing great power is inclined to conceive of God as the Heavenly Father who causes all things to work together for good. For them the most impelling motive is pleasure. Their greatest concern may be to acquire great possessions in this world and eternal bliss in the world to come, or else to add to the well-being of their fellow men and to merit enduring social approval.

To a people lacking power, poverty may seem to be a virtue and the life of penury and sacrifice may be regarded as the highest form of religious life. To Americans the possession of riches may be regarded as a sacred trust and a life of generous service as the highest form of religious life.

To a people lacking power this world is a place of labor and of sorrow. Consolation can be had only in the thought of another world—in a New Jerusalem, a city resplendent in jewels and precious metals. To Americans this present world offers infinite possibilities. Their ambition is not merely to prepare for a future world but to make the most of this by changing it into an ideal abode.

Any factor that greatly modifies our economics, our industry, our morals and our religion would, of course, affect our *education*. No attempt will be made to present a summary of the effects the democratic distribution of great power has had upon our education but two such effects will be cited, one each based on the two sources to which power has been applied.

Power has been used to increase human contacts or as a labor saving device. In each of these particulars it has affected education.

Human contacts may be increased by increased travel or by increased communications. The ox-cart, the saddle-horse, the stage-coach, the rowboat, the sailboat, the steamboat, the passenger train, the automobile, the motor-bus, and the aeroplane have all in turn increased travel. The telegraph, the telephone, the radio, the wide circulation of books, magazines, and newspapers, the cinema, and the foreign guest have all increased our communications beyond those that are secured by travel alone. Increased travel and increased communication have direct educational value, but they have indirectly modified our institutions of formal education. The motor-bus has made possible the rural township high school. The railroad and the steamship have made hundreds of American colleges and universities national and even international institutions. At each of these institutions of higher learning are found students from all of the 48 states, and from all the more important foreign countries. For the classrooms, the libraries and the laboratories in our schools we select teachers, books, apparatus and supplies from our entire social environment. Helpful ideas and improved forms of administration are adopted by distant peoples. The pedagogical ideas of John Dewey and the organizations of the school system of Winnetka, Illinois, are having great influence in the schools of Russia.

Power applied to increased travel and to increased communication has multiplied the results of informal education and has enriched the aids to instruction, added new methods of teaching and widened the horizon of institutions of learning. The single textbook, the memoriter method and the provincial institution are no longer characteristic of formal education.

Power applied to labor saving devices has changed our educational theory and practice even more than has improves methods of travel and of communication. Historically, the peoples of each nation might be thought of as consisting of two classes—the laboring class, which was large, and the leisure class, which was small. The laborer was compelled to give all his energy to his menial task. He has practically

no leisure and was assumed to have no intellectual interests. The only education appropriate for such an individual would be definitely vocational. The gentleman of the leisure class looked upon work as degrading and desired to perfect himself only in those activities that had to do with the use of leisure. For him, the only appropriate form of education was definitely and specifically cultural.

The vocational training of the worker demanded merely informal education, the cultural training of the gentleman, formal education. In America the informal vocational training was provided primarily by actual employment which occasionally was dignified by the term of apprenticeship; the formal cultural training was offered in our grammar schools, academies and classical colleges.

At one time we were in danger of having a two-fold system of education—one for the children of the workers and another for the children of the leisure class. Fortunately we had no hereditary aristocracy to whom we might entrust our cultural interest. We believed thoroughly in the importance of culture, but since we were almost all working people we insisted that every pupil of the land should have an opportunity to acquire the rudiments of culture before he became absorbed in his life calling. Such rudiments of culture would of course be of special value to those who were blessed with leisure in later years.

Today the sharp contrast between vocational education and cultural education is vanishing. In general it may be said that every laborer has much leisure, and every gentleman has an occupation. Each needs practical vocational training to enable him to attain success in his occupation. Each needs formal cultural training to enable him to develop into a more perfect specimen of manhood. Accordingly, we are attempting, so far as possible, to provide a vocational-cultural education for all our youth. Every type of educational institution and every course offered find it necessary to be supported by an educational theory based directly or indirectly on both its vocational and its cultural advantages. The advocates of the study of such cultural

subjects as the classical languages stress the vocational value of these studies. The advocates of economics and of the natural sciences stress the cultural value of these disciplines that were formerly despised because they were believed to have exclusively vocational value.

In our thinking there has been a sharp contrast between school and work, and a belief that any attempt to mix them would dilute and ruin both. Graduation or commencement was the day when schooling ended and work began. The hours of labor were so long, so intense, and so exhausting, that no opportunity was offered to the laborer to continue the study of any of those subjects that were begun in the class room. Although we have reduced our hours of labor we have been slow to change our theory and our practices of education. Gradually we are coming to see that the leisure necessary for study is not confined to childhood, but that the reduction in the hours of labor has added several hours of leisure daily to the average laborer. It is not strange, therefore, that adult education is assuming such importance in America. Mechanical power has not only made possible a reduction in the hours of labor, but it has changed the quality of work to be done and hence the quality of the labor required. With the increased use of power-machines the need for brawn has decreased and the need for training has increased. These changes have increased the importance of the study of vocational subjects, and have increased the possibility for the study of cultural subjects. Power applied to labor saving devices has changed education, and progress has been made in developing skilled workers and dependable men.

Some of the great classics in education were written twenty centuries ago. Education has been so important in human welfare that every stabilizing human influence has been brought to bear upon it. Confidence was had only in that type of education that was based on approved theory and successful practice. The great development of power has taken place in the last two decades. Until 1869 it was of such minor importance that it was not listed in our census

reports. It is not probable that any sudden and radical changes will take place in education. In the face of all this conservatism the rapid accumulation of mechanical power has resulted in some changes in education, two of which were here cited. An historian of great analytical power might cite many such effects. The need today, however, is not for an historian, but for a prophet—or for a school of prophets. Constant changes must be made in our education to enable the rising generation to adjust itself to the new environment as successfully as former generations adjusted themselves to a more primitive environment. Such a school of prophets could render great service by indicating the changes in education that are least fraught with danger and that offer the best prospects of success.

There are today in America many individuals who are called leaders in education but whose age of plasticity was passed before the dawn of the mechanical age. Even our most youthful educators are unduly restrained by the inertia of tradition. There are educational associations whose chief concern is to hold all educational institutions to traditional standards. In such associations the mob-mind resents any appearance of originality. Our distant ancestors possessed the oxen for possibly centuries before the wheel as a burden-bearing device was invented, and before the plow as an agricultural implement was invented. We, too, may delay in making the most of our opportunities. None of us have the vision to see how education should be modified to adjust the human race to this mechanical age. It is the part of wisdom, however, to look with favor on educational experiments in such adjustments, whether conducted by an association or by an individual, and to bestow our greatest honor on the association and on the educator that makes a forward step rather than on the one that sustains a traditional standard. We are quite justified in the support we are giving the American Council on Education and in the responsibility we entrust to its most distinguished Director.

WALTER DILL SCOTT.

Report of the Executive Committee

THE FOUR regular meetings of the Executive Committee were held on September 28, 1927, and January 14, March 16, and May 3, 1928.

During the past year the membership of the Council has been increased by the addition of one constituent member, two associate members, and twenty-three institutional members as follows:

Constituent Member.—American Association of Dental Schools.

Associate Members.—C. R. B. Educational Foundation, Inc.; American Council of Learned Societies.

Institutional Members.—Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.; California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, Calif.; Claremont Colleges, Claremont, Calif.; College of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif.; Holy Cross College, Worcester, Mass.; Howard University, Washington, D. C.; Huron College, Huron, S. D.; Judson College, Marion, Ala.; Keuka College, Keuka Park, N. Y.; Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.; Marion Institute, Marion, Ala.; Marymount College, Tarrytown, N. Y.; Millsaps College, Jackson, Miss.; New York State College for Teachers, Albany, N. Y.; Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Okla.; Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.; Principia, The, St. Louis, Mo.; Rollins College, Winter Park, Fla.; Shorter College, Macon, Ga.; St. Joseph's College, Emmitsburg, Md.; St. Thomas College, Scranton, Pa.; University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.; Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.

The total membership of the Council is now twenty-three constituent, seventeen associate and two hundred and twenty-seven institutional.

At the last annual meeting, the general plan for reorganizing the administrative agencies for international educational relations was presented. This plan looked toward the establishment in each nation of a single office for administering international exchanges, this office to be supported

mainly by the nation concerned. For the United States it was agreed that the appropriate national headquarters should be in New York City in the Institute of International Education. This plan was endorsed by the Council's Committee on the American University Union and by the American Committee on International Intellectual Cooperation. The Council endorsed the plan in principle and ininstructed the Executive Committee to take the necessary steps to put it into operation.

The following steps toward the practical realization of this plan have been taken. Application was made to the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial to increase its grant to the Council from a maximum of $35,000 a year to $50,000 for the remaining term of the original grant, namely, to December 31, 1928. This application was approved by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial. The old grant of February 26, 1924, was cancelled and a new grant made. On recommendation of the Union Committee this grant was apportioned to give $38,000 a year for support of the Union offices in Paris, London, and New York. $7,000 a year for expenses of the Council in winding up its international obligations, and $5,000 each year as a fund for a special study of the international situation directed toward the achieving of the main purpose of consolidating the international educational exchange machinery in each participating nation. The details of this transaction were covered by a series of resolutions passed by the Executive Committee at its meeting September 28, 1927, and distributed to the members of the Council.

In accordance with these resolutions the administration and financial responsibility for the American University Union offices was transferred to the Institute of International Education as of October 1, 1927. Part of the original plan of reorganization was that the Council should nominate two-thirds of the members of the Board of Trustees of the Institute, in accordance with the plan that had been in operation since 1924. Experience with this plan had, however, indicated that this is a clumsy and ineffective manner

of securing representation of higher education institutions on the Board of the Institute. This fact was brought to the attention of the Board of the Institute with the suggestion that it be changed for a more effective method. As a result the Board of the Institute has invited the Council to nominate two members of the Board and has invited twelve other associations of colleges and higher educational institutions to nominate one member each. It is believed that this procedure will secure a much more satisfactory representation of the colleges and universities on the Institute Board.

The Committee is glad to report that the support of the reorganized Institute for the next ten years has been assured by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of $60,000 a year for five years with probability of its renewal for another five years. In addition the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial has made a grant of $240,000 to be expended as the Institute desires over a period of ten years for support of the Union offices, and their gradual transformation to adapt them to the new plan of unified national headquarters.

Your Executive Committee and the Institute agreed that the best use that could be made of the $5,000 available in 1927 for study of international educational relations was to invite the Committee on International Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations to make a fact-finding study of the present situation with regard to national offices of international educational exchanges abroad. Therefore the money was offered to the Committee on International Intellectual Cooperation at Geneva with which to make such a study. This offer has been accepted and the study is now in progress. The following extracts from a letter to the American Committee on Intellectual Cooperation from the Secretariat of the League of Nations indicates the cordial attitude with which this action has been received abroad:

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
GENEVA

March 19, 1928.

SIR:

In a letter dated December 15, 1927, you were good enough to transmit in the name of the American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation to Dr. Lorentz, Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation the offer of 5,000 dollars made by the American Council on Education for a study of the various European agencies dealing with personal exchanges either of professors or students, teachers or pupils between different countries. By my reply of the 30th of December, which was sent after consultation with the Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, this offer was accepted with gratitude, subject to the formal approval of the Council of the League of Nations. I am now happy to inform you that the Council, at its meeting of 7th March, dealt with this question and adopted, on the proposal of M. Briand, Rapporteur, a resolution authorizing the definite acceptance of the offer under the conditions laid down in your letter of December 15, 1927. I enclose herewith the full text of the Report and Resolution adopted by the Council.

I shall be grateful if you will be good enough to inform the American Council on Education of this Resolution and express to them once more our gratitude for their very valuable cooperation.

I have the honour to be,

Your very obedient servant,

(Signed) ERIC DRUMMOND.
Secretary General.

Professor R. A. Millikan,
c/o Dr. Kellogg,
American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation,
Washington, D. C.

There are already established in Europe nine national offices for administering international educational exchanges. The directors of these nine offices held their third annual meeting in Paris April 17th. Dr. S. P. Duggan, Director of the Institute in New York, is attending this meeting as a representative of the American office. The establishment of the Institute as the consolidated headquarters for the United States is the most practical thing that can be done in this country to hasten the consolidation of similar offices abroad. It presents a working model that means much more than any amount of discussion of the plan as a desirable objective.

The study of the teaching of modern foreign languages in the United States and Canada is nearing completion. The report in seven volumes is in press. The work of this committee is of great significance because it has developed new procedures for measuring achievement in modern foreign languages and for organizing instruction on the basis of an analysis of usage to increase the effectiveness of elementary foreign language teaching. Fuller report of this study will be presented this afternoon.

The handbook of American Universities and Colleges edited by Dr. David A. Robertson has been issued. Because this enterprise was supported by a special grant of $7,500 it was possible to place this book of 884 pages on the market at the remarkable price of $2.50. In addition 1,532 copies were distributed without charge to members of the Council, to foreign universities, embassies, consulates and education offices. The reception of the book has been most cordial. It has already gone to its second printing. It has been welcomed as meeting a real need.

At the last meeting of the Council the Executive Committee was instructed to see what can be done to secure cooperation on the problem of enlistment and training of college teachers. In accordance with this mandate a special committee of the Council has been appointed. This committee has undertaken as a first preliminary step a cooperative experiment designed to clarify the general understanding of the objectives and requirements of college teaching. A circular on this subject is printed in the April number of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Additional copies are available for use of any institution that desires to take part. It is hoped that the institutional members of the Council will cooperate fully in this project.

The experiment with psychological examinations for college freshmen has progressed well. As a result of the experiments of the past three years, the examinations this year required only one hour and had a higher diagnostic value. It has been given at 189 colleges to 65,503 students. Because of its reliability, the examination has been offered

to the 2,500 members of the Association of Secondary School Principals for use in the senior year of the high school this spring. Already 42 high schools have ordered 3,975 copies for use with their graduating classes. Thus this experiment has entered its second stage by bringing the secondary schools into active touch with it.

Although the Council voted at its last meeting to discontinue the personnel register, it has not yet been entirely abandoned. The difficult task of keeping it up to date was not carried out last fall but the office has responded to 70 calls for candidates during the year. The office has simply ceased to advertise the register but is giving service whenever called upon.

The Committee on Personnel Methods, for which a grant of $20,000 a year for three years was given by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., has held two two-day meetings during the year. It is developing tools and instruments of measurement for cooperative experiments in four different areas of personnel work, namely, personal record cards, achievement tests, personality measurements, and vocational monographs. Already some of these pattern instruments are being tried out in the cooperative study which the colleges of Pennsylvania are conducting in cooperation with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Full details of the work of this committee will be presented this afternoon.

For several years there has been growing dissatisfaction with the standards used by the regional associations in accrediting colleges and secondary schools. It is coming to be recognized that although these standards have been most useful, less mechanical and more vital standards are now in order. Also the rapid changes in the divisions of the American education system, particularly at the secondary school level, have produced a situation that calls for careful and intensive study. The initiative toward having such a study made was taken by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at its meeting 16th March last. That association appointed a committee to secure the cooperation

of other regional accrediting associations and this Council in seeking an appropriation of $500,000 from Congress for a two-year study of this problem under the guidance of the U. S. Bureau of Education. Fuller details of this enterprise are presented later on the program.

The Council's program of cooperation with business, industry, and the professions is making slow but solid progress. The Council is having difficulty in securing the active support of business organizations because the Council is an educational institution and it is not clear at once to business men why an educational institution should be seeking accurate information about the manner in which business is now conducted. Business men are accustomed to being asked what the schools ought to do and it takes time to persuade them that what the school needs is accurate information about how business is conducted, leaving to the schools the responsibility for determining how education may best meet those needs. Nevertheless personal contact has been established with more than ninety industrial organizations and twenty-eight of these have written descriptions of their present usage in the form of job specifications and submitted them to the Council for educational analysis. The Committee on Education of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States has approved the general plan of action and is ready to stimulate local Chambers of Commerce to develop cooperative experiments between local industries and local school systems in accordance with the basic plan endorsed by the Council. Such an experiment is getting under way in Baltimore and other Chambers of Commerce are becoming interested. No business or industrial organizations have as yet taken institutional membership in the Council. It is the sense of your Committee that such membership should not be pushed too vigorously but should await the thorough conviction of business and industry that the proposed relationship is sound. Fuller details of this situation will be presented tomorrow morning.

Attention is called to the Treasurer's Report, which shows that the finances of the Council are in sound condition. The

estimated income from fees of members, excluding special grants, for the year was $31,580. Actual receipts from this source were $34,070. The bank balance April 30, 1928, was $6,207.90.

The Director's Budget for the coming year is presented herewith with the recommendation that it be approved. It is also recommended that the amendment to the Constitution as printed on the program, reducing the minimum dues for institutional members other than educational institutions from $500 to $200 be approved.

Respectfully submitted,

S. D. SHANKLAND,
Secretary.

Director's Budget, 1928-29

Estimated Resources

I. General Funds:		
Membership dues 1928–29, $35,920, of which $6,740 have been paid. Balance due	$29,180.00	
Balance on back dues	4,760.00	
Services for investigations	850.00	
Bank balance April 30, 1928	6,207.90	
		$40,997.90
II. International Funds (Calendar year 1928):		
Laura Spelman Rockefeller grant	$50,000.00	
Bank balance Dec. 31, 1927	10,935.52	
		60,935.52
III. Funds for Special Projects:		
Modern Foreign Language Study	$31,861.99	
Study of Personnel Methods	20,000.00	
Bank balance April 30, 1928, on Personnel Method fund	4,042.92	
		55,904.91
Total estimated resources		$157,838.33

Estimated Expenditures

	General	*International*	*Special Projects*	
Rent	$ 4,000	$ 500		
Salary of Director and Assistant Director	12,000	2,400		
Salary of Assistants	8,500	2,520		
Administrative traveling expenses	2,500	.....		
Stationery, printing and supplies	1,500	200		
Telephone and telegrams	500	.....		
Postage	600	.....		
Furniture and appliances	200	.....		
Educational Record	4,000	.....		
Industrial Cooperation	4,200	.....		
General Expense	500	.....		
American University Union	.....	42,884		
Teachers' Annuity Association	600	120		
Special Projects			$55,904.91	
Total	$39,100	$48,624	$55,904.91	$143,628.91
Estimated surplus				$14,209.42

Director's Report

THE COUNCIL has made a good start on the second decade of its career. During the year, one new constituent member, two new associate members, and twenty-three new institutional members have joined our ranks. On behalf of the Council, I extend to all of these a cordial welcome.

This increase in membership means far more than mere material increase in numbers reveals. It indicates rather a growing understanding of the nature of the nation's challenge to American education and a deepening desire to cooperate in meeting that challenge with courage. For the past few years we have all been aware that new conceptions of purpose and procedure in education are evolving. Now at last definite outlines of these new conceptions are visible, not only in education, but in politics, in industry, and in national life.

As a first exhibit of the type of change that is taking place, consider what is happening with regard to Federal participation in public education. Since the beginning of our national existence, the Federal Government has contributed to the support of public schools, first by gifts of public land, then by outright grants of public money, and finally by money grants which the states must match and spend for purposes defined by Acts of Congress. The present annual income of higher education from these Federal grants is about $1,500,000 from land grants, $4,000,000 from outright money grants and $17,500,000 from matched grants. Bills now pending provide for increasing this latter sum to $25,000,000 a year.

It is of course obvious that schools must have material support. Hence, it is natural that Federal aid should first take the form of grants for material support. Such Federal aid was appropriate in an age when the attention of schoolmen was focused, as it has been for some forty years, mainly on securing material equipment and perfecting the mechanics of school administration. During this period about $200,000

a year was spent by the Federal Government for the research and information service which is so necessary for revealing the benefits derived from Federal aid and for wisely guiding further educational evolution. So far the amount spent for this service has been only 1 per cent of that granted annually for helping pay operating costs.

These relatively large Federal grants for paying running expenses of public education have been justified on the ground that the schools need the money and it is easier to get it from the Federal Treasury than from State and local funds. This justification is steadily losing force. On the average the States last year spent $2.67 for the specified purposes for every $1.00 of Federal funds. Such grants have also been justified on legal grounds because they have been declared constitutional by the United States Supreme Court. They do not violate the letter of the supreme law of the land. Nevertheless, a constantly increasing number of school men question the soundness of this public policy and doubt the wisdom of its indefinite continuance. Why?

In his address before the Congress of the Daughters of the American Revolution on April 16, 1928, while discussing how far we are fulfilling the responsibility of maintaining American institutions, President Coolidge said:

> There are always those who are willing to surrender local self-government and turn over their affairs to some national authority in exchange for a payment of money out of the Federal Treasury. Whenever they find that some abuse needs correction in their neighborhood, instead of applying a remedy themselves they seek to have a tribunal sent on from Washington to discharge their duties for them, regardless of the fact that in accepting such supervision they are bartering away their freedom. Such actions are always taken on the assumption that they are a public benefit.

In this statement President Coolidge has given a clue as to why so many of us question the wisdom of these Federal subsidies for education. He has also presented a new point of view from which to deal with such questions of public policy. Applied to the case before us, this clue leads to the question: Granted that Federal subsidies are helpful to communities in paying the costs of public schooling, do the

benefits therefrom derived compensate for the loss in powers of self-government and for the deadening of local responsibility for managing their own affairs, which Federal grants that must be used under Federal supervision inevitably imply?

Further evidence that schoolmen are waking up to the significance of the issue presented by President Coolidge has just come from the regional accrediting agencies. For some years there has been a growing dissatisfaction with the standards used by those agencies in making their lists of approved colleges and secondary schools. These standards, you recall, are based upon such factors as amount of independent income, number of books in the library, academic training of professors, ratio of students to faculty, and other similar comparisons of the tangible evidences of school operation. At the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools last March, dissatisfaction with this method of rating schools by their material equipment expressed itself in the appointment of a committee to see what can be done to promote the development of standards that measure instead the changes produced in students by their school experiences. This committee has secured cooperation of the other regional agencies in asking Congress for an appropriation of $500,000 to enable the Bureau of Education to make a cooperative study of secondary education designed particularly to secure the data needed to develop more vital methods of measuring the results of schooling.

Last week representatives of the North Central Association, with approval of the other regional associations, presented the matter to the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives, and urged that adequate support be given the Bureau of Education to strengthen the research and information service of the Federal Government in education instead of limiting Federal aid to money grants. This is another exhibit that shows the transformation in emphasis that is taking place in educational thought. It indicates growing recognition of the fact that the true measure

of a government or of a school is neither its wealth nor its material resources, nor the mechanical perfection of its administration, but the quality and direction of the growth of its citizens or of its students.

This fact has been known for centuries but its practical implications for government, for education, and for industry are only just beginning to be understood. If we are "to preserve the blessings of liberty for ourselves and our posterity," we must be ever vigilant to decentralize responsibility and to insist on local self-government. We must not barter away our freedom for money grants offered under the guise of public benefit.

The Committee on Personnel Methods of this Council is endeavoring to render this ancient conception of practical use in American Schools. The United States has undertaken the greatest experiment in popular education ever attempted. The old monastic method of a beloved master surrounded by a few devoted students whose personal development he intimately supervises does not work. Appropriate methods of appraising individual capacity and of measuring individual progress in mass education must be devised. The efforts of a single individual or of a single institution are apt to be misleading, or at least inapplicable for other teachers or in other schools. Procedures that are useful on a large scale are not likely to be evolved by isolated individuals or institutions. Wide-spread cooperative experiment, pooling and discussion of results from many points of view, and intense criticism of every step are required for sound progress. This Committee has been established to render the services of the needed center of cooperation in this enterprise. Your active participation in its work is invited.

Further evidence of this new trend in educational thought may be found in the recent rapid spread of achievement tests and new-type examinations. The Modern Foreign Language Study, just completed, is a fine exhibit of this tendency. A fair portion of that Study properly deals with the material and administrative side of foreign language

teaching, such as numbers of teachers, numbers of pupils, facilities and distribution. But the vital contribution the study has made to education is the answer it enables the teacher to give to the question, "What has the student really got from his labors in foreign language study?" By supplying teachers with standardized achievement tests for vocabulary, for grammar, for composition, and for reading, they have made it possible for the teacher to appraise the actual accomplishment of the student. His progress henceforth is not to be measured in clock hours of time spent in class or in semester hours of credit thereby secured. The actual changes in the individual with regard to French, or German, or Spanish, now become the criteria of the success or failure of the teaching.

A second important contribution of the Modern Foreign Language Study is the development of a practical procedure that enables students to master more in less time. This is done by basing instruction on an analysis of current usage. Word counts, grammatical form counts, syntax counts have been made and class work so organized that the beginner encounters the most frequently used words and grammatical forms first. As a result, he soon develops confidence based on a sense of increasing control, and reaches more quickly and surely the level where he feels the liberalizing influences that are the ultimate justification for foreign language study.

The foregoing facts indicate the nature of the major new conception that is now taking definite form as a challenge to American education. The progress that is being made in developing procedures for appraising individual capacities and for measuring individual achievement shows that schoolmen are meeting that challenge with courage and with confidence. The spirit of wholehearted cooperation prevails everywhere, but there is still much lost motion and duplication of effort because there is as yet no adequately supported central information service that keeps every cooperating group informed concerning what the others are doing. The establishment of an appropriate central agency of cooperation in education is the greatest opportunity in sight in America for distinguished national service.

Three other significant movements point to a second fundamental conception that is old as the hills but new in its practical use as a guide to public educational procedure. I refer, first, to the activities of the American Association of University Women and other research agencies with regard to the pre-school child; second, to the recent organization of the Adult Education Association; and, third, to the increasing interest of employers in the training of employees. These three movements indicate practical recognition of the fact that education is continuous throughout life and is not confined to the period of formal school work. As stated, this idea has been voiced incessantly for centuries, but its implications for a nation that has undertaken to give everyone all the schooling he can absorb are just coming to be understood.

If education for any individual is really to be a continuous and coherent process of development from the cradle to the grave, it is obvious malpractice to divide life into three unrelated laps, such as infancy, school, and work. Continuity of growth requires that parents, who are responsible during infancy, understand schools; that teachers, who are responsible during schooling, understand the world's work; and that employers who are responsible for the rest of life, understand education. Such mutual understandings are steadily developing through such activities as those just mentioned.

So far this Council, since it is essentially an instrument of higher education, has not taken part in developing continuity of purpose and practice between infancy and school. The Council is, however, actively engaged in fostering mutual understanding between school and work. To this end accurate descriptions of how the world's work is actually done are being collected as a basis for an analysis of current usage in industry, in business, and in the professions. A pattern form of writing these descriptions has been evolved, so that they are comparable and capable of analysis to define usage. Twenty-four large industrial firms have furnished us with such descriptions of some 3,000 different jobs, ranging in complexity from laborer to general counsel. Enough of this preliminary material has now been gathered to begin the

analysis for educational content. It is a large and fundamental enterprise requiring for its proper execution financial support comparable with that given by the Carnegie Corporation to the Modern Foreign Language Study. This is the most pregnant opportunity at present available for promoting sound educational progress, but it has not yet been possible to secure the needed financial aid.

The efforts of the Council's office to secure financial support for this pioneer program have been both discouraging and illuminating. Though twenty-four industrial firms have been willing to write job specifications, not one has yet joined the Council as made possible by the amendment to the constitution two years ago. They seem to fear that colleges may use descriptions of business usage to mechanize students, instead of giving them liberal and fundamental training. The president of one of the leading American companies frankly said that he does not want colleges to train specialists for his company; and, therefore, he is unwilling to give schools job specifications, though he appreciates their great value for internal company uses. So far, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., has been the only one who has shown the vision and the courage to support these unconventional experiments. Because of his support, progress has been made in securing records of business usage and in developing instruments for evaluating personal capacity and achievement.

Such misapprehensions are to be expected in every novel undertaking. Even such objective novelties as the railroad and the telephone did not come into general use over night. Most of us now have so many things on our minds in this mad rush of events that we cannot think through any proposition that does not bear directly on our immediate responsibilities. Nevertheless, it is encouraging to note that several signs are appearing to indicate that the underlying principles of the personnel program are beginning to be understood. Two of these will be called to your attention in closing.

First, a new expression—self-education on the job—is com-

ing into more and more frequent use at educational conferences, particularly those of the American Management Association. The manner of its use indicates that two fundamental conceptions concerning education are tacitly accepted by those who use it. The first is the notion that true education is self-education. The second is that the daily job is the chief instrument for the education of mankind. When we accept these two conceptions as a basis for educational procedure, we have a unifying guide for bringing coherence and continuity into the unfolding life of every individual. The most precious gift with which Nature has endowed every individual is his capacity for skilled workmanship in some form, whether as hewer of wood or creator of poetry. Parents and teachers and employers can unite in a continuing effort to discover what is each individual's capacity for personal skill and can try to organize the home or the school or the world's work so that every day's experience will at some point challenge that personal skill and give it opportunities for ever-increasing achievement.

I am not qualified to comment on what is being done to infants nowadays. But the schools, industries, and professions are certainly trying more and more each year to achieve the objective thus defined. This cannot be done by guesswork or by hunches alone, any more than physical science could grow without experiments and measurements and records. And if some experimenters with I Qs and psychological tests are over confident in their alleged conclusions, do not worry. Natural scientists were once that way too. Jobs can be described, usage can be analysed, individual capacities for skill can be discovered, achievements can be measured, every day's work can be made to contribute to personal growth,—these are the essential prerequisites for vital self-education on the job.

Second, the most significant contribution to an intelligent and satisfying understanding of present world conditions as they affect education is the recent book on Constructive Citizenship by Principal L. P. Jacks of Manchester College, Oxford. In this book, Jacks shows how the older theory of

social progress follows medical analogy and considers society as suffering from various specific diseases. The reformer then devotes his energies to curing ailments or to stopping abuses. Hence, we have hundreds of welfare organizations through which thousands of benevolent citizens are unselfishly devoting time, energy and money to curing the various ills of society. Their efforts are essential to human comfort and praiseworthy in every way. The amount of human suffering they relieve is enormous.

Nevertheless, modern medicine is devoting more and more of its attention to teaching the principles of health in order that people may keep well. Philanthropic work may profit by this example of preventive medicine and seek the fundamental principles of healthy social and economic life. When society has learned to keep healthy, its various so-called diseases will disappear as a natural consequence.

Jacks maintains that social evils measure the extent to which society has been betrayed by bad workmanship because the ideal of personal skill has ceased to dominate our conception of work. Good workmanship is the foundation of good citizenship, and a skilled worker has the best possible chance of being master of his fate and captain of his soul. He becomes a responsible being, valuable to his fellowmen and conscious that he is so. Labor is the chief instrument for the education of mankind, and any man who finds in his daily work sufficient scope for his personal skill to derive from that work a valuable education has achieved the basic condition for social health.

The latent skill of the people is the greatest of all undeveloped natural resources. To discover personal skill and give it the best possible opportunity for increasing perfection through excellent performance is the most practical method for achieving social health. This requires a vigorous searching out of human aptitudes and a development of these on the lines of all the arts and crafts, both of the body and of the spirit. Training directed to that end, far from restricting the range of human knowledge, would extend and deepen it, and would impart an immense impulse to every science and its attendant art.

The manner in which Jacks traces the implications of these fundamental ideas into politics, into morality, into industry, and into education is most illuminating and inspiring. Time prevents further following of the theme, but I earnestly urge everyone to study this book at the first possible opportunity. It supplies a profound philosophical justification for the practical cooperative experiments this Council is now making.

While it is characteristic of western thought to attempt to penetrate to spiritual meanings by analysis of natural phenomena, as Jacks has done, it is characteristic of oriental thought to rely on intuition and meditation in finding the meaning of life. In the case under consideration, these two processes seem to lead to similar conclusions. Kahlil Gibran, in his booklet, "The Prophet," thus deals with the question of work:

> And I say that life is indeed darkness save when there is urge,
> And all urge is blind save when there is knowledge,
> And all knowledge is vain save when there is work,
> And all work is empty save when there is love;
> And when you work with love you bind yourself to yourself, and to one another, and to God.

C. R. MANN.

Treasurer's Report

WASHINGTON, D. C.,
May 4, 1928.

DR. C. R. MANN, Director,
American Council on Education,
26 *Jackson Place,*
Washington, D. C.

DEAR DR. MANN:

I herewith submit four statements of F. W. Lafrentz & Company, being audits for the period from May 1, 1927, to April 30, 1928, on the following accounts of the American Council on Education:

American Council on Education—general fund.
American Council on Education—International Education Fund.
American Council on Education—Modern Foreign Language Study Fund, New York Committee.
American Council on Education—Modern Foreign Language Study Fund, Canadian Committee.

I desire to submit these papers as my Annual Report as your Treasurer for the past year.

Very truly yours,

CORCORAN THOM,
Treasurer, American Council on Education.

GENERAL FUND

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From May 1, 1927, to April 30, 1928

RECEIPTS

Constituent Members	$1,800.00	
Associate Members	160.00	
Institutional Members	32,110.00	
		$34,070.00
Subscriptions to EDUCATIONAL RECORD and extra copies		284.65
Contributions:		
John D. Rockefeller, Jr., for Committee on Personnel Methods	$20,000.00	
John D. Rockefeller, Jr., for Industrial Co-operation	1,450.00	
		21,450.00
Sale of Psychological Tests		7,494.87
Reimbursement for Administrating Grants:		
Foreign Language Study Fund, Canadian Committee	$ 550.00	
Foreign Language Study Fund—New York Committee	1,200.00	
		1,750.00
Interest on Bank Deposits		152.17
Sale of Report on Personnel Procedure		101.16
Total receipts		$65,302.85
Cash on Hand, May 1, 1927:		
American Security and Trust Company		2,454.55
		$67,757.40

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries:		
Director	$12,000.00	
Assistants	6,235.00	
		$18,235.00
Rent		3,120.03
Stationery, Printing and Supplies		1,406.85
Postage		597.25
Telephone and Telegrams		422.68
General Expenses		921.68
Traveling Expenses of Director		748.56
Executive Committee		595.83
Publication Expenses EDUCATIONAL RECORD		4,226.14
Committee on Personnel Methods		15,957.08
Psychological Test Experiment:		
Psychological Tests	$1,824.85	
Thurstone—General Expenses	3,155.95	
		4,980.80
Furniture and Fixtures		152.30
Industrial Cooperation:		
C. E. Hewitt, Traveling Expenses	$2,063.13	
C. E. Hewitt, Salary	3,600.00	
Office Expenses	479.25	
		6,142.38
Total disbursements		$57,506.58
Cash on Hand, April 30, 1928:		
American Security and Trust Company		10,250.82
		$67,757.40

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FUND

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

For the year ended December 31, 1927

RECEIPTS

Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Fund		$50,000.00
Contributions:		
Chas. L. Pack, Rome A. U. U.	$1,000.00	
Chas. L. Pack, Dr. Krans' expenses, visit to U. S.	2,000.00	
		3,000.00
Commonwealth Fund—Fellowship Fund		500.00
Interest on bank deposits		330.28
Total Receipts		$53,830.28
Cash on Hand, January 1, 1927:		
American Security and Trust Company		9,055.77
		$62,886.05

DISBURSEMENTS

Washington office:			
Salaries:			
Director	$6,000.00		
Assistants	3,778.73		
		$9,778.73	
Traveling Expenses		309.09	
Stationery, Printing and Supplies		51.00	
Telephone and Telegraph		3.75	
Postage		70.00	
Furniture and Appliances		35.00	
General Expense		198.47	
Rent		2,040.01	
Undergraduate Scholarships, Refund to C. S. Dickey		200.00	
Teachers Annuity Association	$720.00		
Employes' Proportion to Ass'n	420.00	300.00	
			$12,986.05
New York Office:			
General Expense		$1,248.46	
Unexpended balance of $25,256.00 allocated for 8 months from May 1, 1927, to December 31, 1927, plus unexpended balance at May 1, 1927		12,057.00	
Committee Expenses		35.61	
			13,341.07
Forward			$26,327.12

Forward			$26,327.12
London Office:			
Salaries		$5,041.70	
Traveling Expenses		500.00	
Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association	$350.00		
Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association — Employes' Proportion	131.22		
		218.78	
Office Expense		4,225.02	
Exchange		21.30	
Periodicals		32.00	
			10,038.80
Paris Office:			
Salaries		$5,750.04	
Traveling Expenses		3,000.00	
Rent		1,350.00	
Teachers Annuity Association	$399.93		
Employes' Proportion to Ass'n	149.94		
		249.99	
Office Expense		3,525.00	
Exchange		9.25	
			13,884.28
Handbook:			
Stationery, Printing and Supplies		$60.65	
Postage		41.48	
Telegrams		46.62	
Printing and Typewriting		349.58	
Index		200.00	
			698.33
Rome office:			
General Expense		$1,000.00	
Exchange		2.00	
			1,002.00
Total disbursements			$51,950.53
Cash on Hand, December 31, 1927:			
American Security and Trust Company			10,935.52
			$62,886.05

MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY FUND
NEW YORK COMMITTEE

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS
From May 1, 1927, to April 30, 1928

RECEIPTS

Carnegie Corporation		$30,000.00
Interest on Bank Deposits		554.63
Sale of Tests		374.56
Sale of Furniture		146.25
Spanish Word Book		72.88
Refunds:		
R. H. Fife	$85.29	
Josephine Allen	.84	
Algernon Coleman	39.61	
		125.74
Transferred from Canadian Committee		2,919.02
Total receipts		$34,193.08
Cash on Hand, May 1, 1927:		
American Security and Trust Company		17,863.32
		$52,056.40

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries and Wages		$ 9,405.61
Supplies and Equipment		232.23
Printing and Publicity		8,488.80
Communications		390.33
Travel and Meetings		3,213.87
Expert Assistance		6,825.72
Contingent		1,371.57
Transferred to Canadian Committee:		
Printing and Publicity	$486.59	
Travel and Meetings	614.47	
		1,101.06
Total disbursements		$31,029.19
Cash on Hand, April 30, 1928:		
American Security and Trust Company		21,027.21
		$52,056.40

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY FUND
CANADIAN COMMITTEE

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From May 1, 1927, *to April* 30, 1928

RECEIPTS	
Carnegie Corporation	$12,500.00
Interest on Bank Deposits	277.33
Spanish Word Book	36.44
Refund—M. A. Buchanan	219.01
Transferred from New York Committee	1,101.06
Total Receipts	$14,133.84
Cash on Hand, May 1, 1927:	
American Security and Trust Company	13,530.72
	$27,664.56
DISBURSEMENTS	
Salaries and Wages	$5,854.00
Supplies and Equipment	1,269.47
Printing and Publicity	802.54
Travel and Meetings	3,226.23
Expert Assistance	1,308.52
Contingent	1,450.00
Transferred to New York Committee—Expert Assistance	2,919.02
Total Disbursements	$16,829.78
Cash on Hand, April 30, 1928:	
American Security and Trust Company	10,834.78
	$27,664.56

Constitution of American Council on Education

1. NAME: The name of the organization shall be "American Council on Education."

2. OBJECT: The general object of the Council is to promote and carry out cooperative action in matters of common interest to the associations represented. It is understood that such matters will lie mainly in the field of university and college work, and in related educational fields. The Council was organized to meet national needs in time of war and will always seek to render patriotic service. It will also encourage international cooperation in educational matters.

3. MEMBERSHIP: The membership of the Council shall consist of three classes of members—constituent, associate, and institutional.

Constituent Members: This group shall consist of national educational organizations and such other bodies having similar interests as may from time to time be added by the Council.

Each organization shall be represented on the Council by three members who shall vote as a unit through a designated person. It is recommended that each organization in the first election following the date of this meeting, elect one member for a term of one year; one for a term of two years; and one for a term of three years; and that all subsequent elections be for terms of three years. Elections of new members to the Council shall take effect immediately following such elections. Any election to fill a vacancy occurring during the year shall take effect at once, and shall be for the remaining period of the term thus filled.

The Council shall report its actions to the several organizations at the close of each year ending April 30, and at such other times as may be desired.

Associate Members: Associate members shall consist of such organizations having interests related to the work of the Council as may from time to time be elected by the Council. Associate members may send one representative each to the meetings of the Council, without right to vote.

Institutional Members: This group shall consist of colleges, universities and professional and technical schools of similar grade, that contribute not less than one hundred dollars to the treasury of the Council, and of other organizations of high standing that carry on higher educational activities or cooperate with educational institutions in improving instruction, and that contribute not less than two hundred dollars a year to the treasury of the Council. The conditions of eligibility for institutional membership, both for educational institutions and for other organizations, and the scale of membership fees shall be fixed by the Executive Committee of the Council. Institutional members may send one representative each to the meetings of the Council. Whenever a

vote is taken, if there are negative votes, the institutional members shall be counted separately and no action shall be valid unless supported by a majority of the constituent members present and voting. On request of any three members any matter directly affecting institutional members shall be made the subject of a referendum vote by them before final action is taken by the Council.

4. DUES: The annual dues for constituent members shall be $100 a year, for associate members $10 a year, and for institutional members from $100 to $500 a year for educational institutions, and from $200 to $2,500 a year for other organizations, a portion of which shall be for one or more subscriptions to THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD at $2.00 a year for each subscription, the number of copies to which each member is entitled being fixed by the Executive Committee.

5. OFFICERS: The Council shall elect a Chairman, a first Vice-Chairman, a second Vice-Chairman, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and such other officers as from time to time may seem desirable. The Treasurer need not be a member of the Council. All funds for which the Council, or any of its committees, is responsible, shall be received by the Treasurer and shall be disbursed by him under proper authority.

The Council shall also elect a salaried Director, who shall be the chief executive officer. He shall have general administrative supervision of the affairs of the Council and shall be responsible for the carrying out of such plans and policies as the Council, or its executive committee, may approve. He shall be *ex officio* a member of the executive committee and of all standing committees. He shall report annually to the Council, and shall make such other reports as the Chairman of the Council may request.

All officers, except the Director, shall be elected at the Annual Meeting, and their terms of office shall begin immediately following election.

6. EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE: There shall be an Executive Committee consisting of ten members, eight selected from the representatives of the constituent organizations, and the Director and the United States Commissioner of Education *ex officio*. The Chairman and Secretary of the Council shall be Chairman and Secretary, respectively, of the Executive Committee. The remaining six members shall be elected by the Council, two at each annual meeting to serve for a three-year term. The Executive Committee shall hold meetings at least quarterly, and shall report its actions to the members of the Council after each meeting.

In case a member of the Executive Committee shall fail to attend (or to designate an alternate) at two meetings of the Executive Committee, he shall cease to be a member thereof. In case of a vacancy on the Executive Committee, the Committee shall have power to fill the vacancy until the next meeting of the Council.

7. MEETINGS: The annual meeting of the Council shall be held on

the first Friday in May. Special meetings may be called by the Chairman. The Chairman shall call a meeting at any time at the request of representatives of any three constituent organizations.

Written notice of all meetings shall be sent to all members at least two weeks in advance, except in special circumstances when this provision may be waived by consent of the representatives of two-thirds of the organizations constituting the Council.

Those present at any meeting of which written notice has been duly given, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, but no action shall become effective until approved by representatives of a majority of the organizations constituting the Council.

8. BUDGET: The Executive Committee shall present a budget each year at the annual meeting, and no financial obligation shall be incurred by any officer or committee except as authorized by the Council or the Executive Committee. The fiscal year of the Council shall close on April 30.

9. TRAVELING EXPENSES: The traveling expenses of the officers and the Executive Committee may be paid from the funds of the Council.

It is recommended that the traveling expenses of the other members attending the meetings of the Council be paid by the organizations which they represent.

10. COMMITTEE APPOINTMENTS: The Council and the Executive Committee may appoint special committees. All committee appointments shall expire April 30, with right to reappointment. The members of committees may be selected from the members of any institution associated with one of the organizations constituting the Council. Chairmen of committees shall be invited to sit with the Council, without right to vote.

11. AUTHORITY OF COMMITTEES: Final responsibility for all undertakings rests with the Council. The Executive Committee shall act for the Council between meetings, but shall refer all questions involving new policy to the members of the Council for letter ballot before taking final action. Committees are not authorized to commit the Council to any undertaking not specifically authorized by the Council or its Executive Committee.

12. AMENDMENTS: This Constitution may be amended at any time by vote of three-fourths of the organizations constituting the Council.

Written notice of any proposed change in the Constitution shall be sent to all constituent members of the Council at least two weeks before the meeting at which the proposed change is to be considered.

Officers of the American Council on Education, 1928-29

Chairman: President Frederick B. Robinson, College of the City of New York, representing the Association of Urban Universities.

First Vice-Chairman: Mr. R. E. Files, Principal, East Orange High School, representing the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

Second Vice-Chairman: Mr. L. W. Smith, Superintendent, Joliet Junior College, representing the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Secretary: Mr. S. D. Shankland, National Education Association, representing the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Treasurer: Mr. Corcoran Thom, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Director: Dr. C. R. Mann.

Assistant Director: Dr. David A. Robertson.

Assistant to the Director: Dr. C. E. Hewitt.

Executive Committee: The Chairman, the Secretary. For 1 year—Dr. A. W. Harris, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York City, representing the Council of Church Boards of Education; Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Barnard College, representing the American Association of University Women. For 2 years—Chancellor S. P. Capen, University of Buffalo, representing the Association of American Colleges and the Association of American Medical Colleges; Mr. J. Walter Dietz, Western Electric Company, representing the American Management Association. For 3 years—Dr. Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, representing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; President Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, representing the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. The Director and the U. S. Commissioner of Education, *ex officio.*

CONSTITUENT MEMBERS AND THEIR DELEGATES FOR 1928-29

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF DENTAL SCHOOLS:

L. E. Ford, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.
Marcus L. Ward, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Frank T. Breene, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES:

Doak S. Campbell, Central College, Conway, Ark.
H. G. Noffsinger, Virginia Intermont College, Bristol, Va.
L. W. Smith, Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Ill.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS' COLLEGES:
Shelton Phelps, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.
Noble Lee Garrison, Teacher's College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Normal W. Camron, West Chester, Pa.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS:
H. G. Doyle, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
H. C. Lancaster, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
H. W. Tyler, Mass. Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN:
Dorothy Stimson, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.
Lois Hayden Meek, 1634 Eye Street, Washington, D. C.
Belle Rankin, 1634 Eye Street, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION:
E. C. Richardson, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.
George F. Bowerman, Public Library of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.
H. H. B. Meyer, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION:
J. W. Dietz, Western Electric Co., Kearny Works, Kearny, N. J.
A. S. Donaldson, R. H. Macy & Co., New York City.
C. R. Dooley, Standard Oil Co., 26 Broadway, New York City.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES:
S. P. Capen, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.
Arlo A. Brown, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tenn.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN MEDICAL COLLEGES:
S. P. Capen, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
Burton D. Myers, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
Fred C. Zapffe, 25 East Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES:
L. D. Coffman, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
R. L. Wilbur, Stanford University, Stanford University, Calif.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND:
Ralph E. Files, East Orange High School, East Orange, N. J.
Samuel Osbourn, Germantown Academy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. Lucy M. Wing, Miss Madeira's School, 1330 19th Street Washington, D. C.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES:
J. H. Kirkland, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
H. L. Smith, Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.
Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.

ASSOCIATION OF LAND GRANT COLLEGES:

K. L. Butterfield, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing, Mich.

R. D. Hetzel, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

R. A. Pearson, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.

ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES:

F. B. Robinson, College of the City of New York, New York City.

Theodore J. Grayson, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

C. S. Marsh, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.

CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION:

Rev. P. L. McCormick, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

Rt. Rev. Edward A. Pace, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

Rt. Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

COUNCIL OF CHURCH BOARDS OF EDUCATION:

A. W. Harris, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Robert L. Kelly, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

H. O. Pritchard, 309 Chamber of Commerce Building, Indianapolis, Ind.

COUNCIL ON MEDICAL EDUCATION AND HOSPITALS OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION:

N. P. Colwell, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.

Walter F. Donaldson, 8103 Jenkins Arcade, Pittsburgh, Pa.

M. W. Ireland, War Department, Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:

Frank W. Ballou, Franklin School, Washington, D. C.

S. D. Shankland, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D. C.

A. B. Meredith, Hartford, Conn.

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION:

Anson Phelps Stokes, 2408 Massachusetts Avenue N.W., Washington, D. C.

Stephen P. Duggan, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

Archie M. Palmer, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE UNIVERSITIES:

M. A. Brannon, University of Montana, Helena, Mont.

W. A. Jessup, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

A. H. Upham, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:

George D. Strayer, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

Florence E. Bamberger, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Frank W. Ballou, Franklin School, Washington, D. C.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS:
Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
W. I. Early, High School, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION:
F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Hugh Miller, Union College, Schenectady, N. Y.
W. E. Wickenden, Engineering Societies Bldg., 33 West 39th Street, New York City.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

Alumni Association of American Rhodes Scholars.
American Association for the Advancement of Science.
American Association of Collegiate Registrars.
American Council of Learned Societies.
American Historical Association.
American Institute of Architects.
American-Scandinavian Foundation.
Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture.
Character Education Institution.
C. R. B. Educational Foundation.
Engineering-Economics Foundation.
Modern Language Association of America.
National Council on Religion in Higher Education.
National Research Council.
National Society of College Teachers of Education.
Religious Education Association.
United Y. M. C. A. Schools.

Institutional Members, 1928-29

ALABAMA:
- Alabama Polytechnic Institute
- Birmingham-Southern College
- Judson College
- Howard College
- Marion Institute

ARIZONA:
- Arizona, University of

ARKANSAS:
- Ouachita College

CALIFORNIA:
- California, University of
- California Institute of Technology
- Claremont Colleges (Pomona-Scripps)
- Dominican College
- Mills College
- Occidental College
- College of the Pacific
- Southern California, Univ. of
- Stanford University

COLORADO:
- Colorado College
- Colorado State Teachers College
- Denver, University of
- Loretto Heights College

CONNECTICUT:
- Connecticut College
- Wesleyan University
- Yale University

DELAWARE:
- Delaware, University of

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA:
- Catholic University of America
- George Washington University
- Georgetown University
- Howard University
- Trinity College

FLORIDA:
- Florida State Coll. for Women
- Florida, University of
- Rollins College

GEORGIA:
- Agnes Scott College
- Emory University
- Shorter College
- Wesleyan College

HAWAII:
- Hawaii, University of

ILLINOIS:
- Carthage College
- Chicago, University of
- De Paul University
- Illinois, University of
- Knox College
- Lake Forest College
- Lewis Institute
- Loyola University
- Northwestern University
- Rockford College
- Rosary College
- St. Xavier College

INDIANA:
- De Pauw University
- Indiana University
- Notre Dame, University of
- Purdue University
- Rose Polytechnic Institute
- St. Mary's College, Notre Dame
- St. Mary-of-the-Woods College

IOWA:
- Coe College
- Cornell College
- Grinnell College
- Iowa State College of A. & M.A.
- Iowa State Teachers College
- Luther College
- State University of Iowa

KANSAS:
St. Mary's College
Washburn College
Wichita, Municipal University of

KENTUCKY:
Centre College
Georgetown College
Kentucky, University of
Louisville, University of

LOUISIANA:
Louisiana State Normal College
Louisiana State University
Southwestern Louisiana Institute

MAINE:
Bates College

MARYLAND:
Goucher College
Hood College
Johns Hopkins University
Maryland, University of
Mt. St. Mary's College
Notre Dame College
St. John's College
St. Joseph's College

MASSACHUSETTS:
Amherst College
Boston College
Boston University
Clark University
Harvard University
Holy Cross College
Mass. Institute of Technology
Mt. Holyoke College
Radcliffe College
Smith College
Wellesley College
Wheaton College
Williams College

MICHIGAN:
Albion College
Alma College
Detroit, University of
Kalamazoo College
Marygrove College
Michigan College of Mining and Technology
Michigan, University of
Western State Normal School

MINNESOTA:
Carleton College
College of St. Catherine
College of St. Teresa
Hamline University
Macalester College
Minnesota, University of
St. Olaf College

MISSISSIPPI:
Millsaps Collegs
Mississippi A. & M. College
Mississippi Woman's College

MISSOURI:
Central College
Lindenwood College
Missouri, University of
The Principia
St. Louis University
Washington University
Webster College

MONTANA:
Montana, University of

NEW HAMPSHIRE:
Dartmouth College
New Hampshire, University of

NEW JERSEY:
College of St. Elizabeth
Georgian Court College
Princeton University
Rutgers University
Stevens Institute of Technology

NEW MEXICO:
State University of New Mexico

NEW YORK:
Alfred University
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute

NEW YORK—(Continued).
Buffalo, University of
Colgate University
College of the City of New York
College of Mt. St. Vincent on Hudson
College of New Rochelle
College of the Sacred Heart
Columbia University
Cornell University
Elmira College
Fordham University
Hamilton College
Hunter College
Keuka College
Manhattan College
Marymount College
New York State College for Teachers
New York University
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
Rochester, University of
Skidmore College
Syracuse, University of
St. Bonaventure's College
St. Stephen's College
Union College
Vassar College
Wells College

NORTH CAROLINA:
North Carolina College for Women
North Carolina, University of

OHIO:
Akron, University of
Case School of Applied Science
Cincinnati, University of
Denison University
Heidelberg College
Marietta College
Miami University
Muskingum College
Oberlin College
Ohio Wesleyan University
Otterbein College
Western Reserve University
Wittenberg College

OKLAHOMA:
Oklahoma, University of
Oklahoma A. & M. College

OREGON:
State Agricultural College
University of Oregon

PENNSYLVANIA:
Bryn Mawr College
Bucknell University
Carnegie Inst. of Technology
Drexel Institute
Dropsie College
Grove City College
Lafayette College
Lehigh University
Marywood College
Pennsylvania, University of
Pennsylvania College for Women
Pennsylvania State College
Pittsburgh, University of
Seton Hill College
St. Thomas College
St. Vincent College
Swarthmore College
Temple University
Villanova College
Wilson College

SOUTH CAROLINA:
Converse College
South Carolina, University of
Winthrop College

SOUTH DAKOTA:
Huron College
South Dakota State School of Mines

TENNESSEE:
Chattanooga, University of
Southwestern
Vanderbilt University

TEXAS:
Baylor College for Women
Baylor University
College of Industrial Arts
Incarnate Word College
Our Lady of the Lake College
Rice Institute
Texas, University of

UTAH:
Brigham-Young University
Utah Agricultural College

VERMONT:
Middlebury College
Vermont, University of

VIRGINIA:
College of William and Mary
Sweet Briar College
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Virginia, University of
Washington and Lee University

WASHINGTON:
Washington, University of

WISCONSIN:
Lawrence College
Marquette University
Milwaukee-Downer College
St. Mary's College
Wisconsin, University of

WYOMING:
Wyoming, University of